Media Education in the Finnish School System

A Conceptual Analysis of the Subject Didactic Dimension of Media Education

Helsinki 2011

Media Education Publications 12

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Abstract

The aim of the doctoral dissertation was to further our theoretical and empirical understanding of media education as practised in the context of Finnish basic education. The current era of intensive use of the Internet is recognised too. The doctoral dissertation presents the subject didactic dimension of media education as one of the main results of the conceptual analysis.

The theoretical foundation is based on the idea of dividing the concept of media education into 'media' and 'education' (Vesterinen et al., 2006). As two ends of the dimension, these two can be understood didactically as content and pedagogy respectively. In the middle, subject didactics is considered to have one form closer to content matter (Subject Didactics I—learning about media) and another closer to general pedagogical questions (Subject Didactics II—learning with/through media).

The empirical case studies of the dissertation are reported with foci on media literacy in the era of Web 2.0 (Kynäslahti et al., 2008), teacher reasoning in media educational situations (Vesterinen, Kynäslahti & Tella, 2010) and the research methodological implications of the use of information and communication technologies in the school (Vesterinen, Toom & Patrikainen, 2010).

As a conclusion, Media-Based Media Education and Cross-Curricular Media Education are presented as two subject didactic modes of media education in the school context. Episodic Media Education is discussed as the third mode of media education where less organised teaching, studying and learning related to media takes place, and situations (i.e. episodes, if you like) without proper planning or thorough reflection are in focus. Based on the theoretical and empirical understanding gained in this dissertation, it is proposed that instead of occupying a corner of its own in the school curriculum, media education should lead the wider change in Finnish schools.

Keywords: media education, subject didactics, media literacy

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Mediakasvatus perusopetuksessa: Käsiteanalyysi mediakasvatuksen ainedidaktisesta ulottuvuudesta

Abstrakti

Tutkimuksen tavoitteena on teoreettinen ja empiirinen ymmärrys perusopetuksen mediakasvatuksesta internetin keskeinen rooli huomioiden. Väitöskirjan keskeisenä tuloksena tässä esitetään käsiteanalyysiin pohjautuva *mediakasvatuksen ainedidaktinen ulottuvuus*.

Teoreettisen pohjan analyysille luo mediakasvatus-käsitteen jakaminen ’mediaan’ ja ’kasvatukseen’ (Vesterinen ym., 2006). Ainedidaktisen ulottuvuuden ääripäinä nämä kaksi aluetta voidaan didaktisesta näkökulmasta nähdä sisältönä ja pedagogiikkana. Keskelle jäävä ainedidaktiikan alue voidaan edelleen jakaa kahtia. Lähempänä sisältö-kysymystä *ainedidaktiikka I* keskittyy mediataidon opettamiseen ja siihen liittyvän sisällön jäsentämiseen. Vastaavasti lähempänä yleispedagogisia kysymyksiä *ainedidaktiikka II* tarkastelee pedagogisesti mielekästä tieto- ja viestintätekniikan käyttöä opetuksessa ja opiskelussa.

Väitöskirja koostuu artikkeleista, jotka keskittyivät mediataidon uudelleen määrittelyyn omaehtoisuutta korostavan internetin aikakaudella (Kynäslahti ym., 2008), mediakasvatuksellisiin tilanteisiin ja opettajan toiminnan perustelujen analyysiin (Vesterinen, Kynäslahti & Tella, 2010) ja tutkimusmetodologiseen kehittelyyn tieto- ja viestintätekniikan opiskelu- ja opetuskäytön konteksteissa (Vesterinen, Toom & Patrikainen, 2010).

Käsiteanalyysin johtopäätöksenä esitetään *media-lähtöinen mediakasvatus* ja *oppiaineisiin integroituva mediakasvatus* kahtena ainedidaktisena muotona. Kolmantena perusopetuksen mediakasvatuksen toteutumana esitetään *episodinen mediakasvatus*. Se ilmenee mediakasvatuksellisten tilanteiden, episodien, muodossa ilman perusteellista opetus–opiskelu–oppimisprosessin suunnittelua tai reflektointia. Tutkimuksen perusteella suomalaisen mediakasvatuksen laajana tehtävänä tulee nähdä perusopetuksen kehittäminen eikä ainoastaan pyrkimys oman perusopetuksen oppiaineen muodostamiseen.

Avainsanat: mediakasvatus, ainedidaktiikka, mediataito

Acknowledgements

This doctoral research always felt like a process, not a project. I have been fortunate to take this journey which has included learning about simplicity as well as complexity. As a researcher, things should never be seen as black and white. It is the shades of grey and the colours of *iris* that we must explore in our lives. As teachers, we must negotiate the meanings in a way that leaves us with some certainty of things. Aiming at this often includes attempts to translate the complexity into simplicity. I am most grateful to many for their help and support in these attempts of mine.

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Helsinki, April 2011

Olli Vesterinen

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1 Introduction

There is an increasing amount of research literature on media education and more and more suggestions for a better theoretical understanding, as well as better practical pedagogy, are also being presented. Many of these volumes acknowledge the current trends of media technology, too. However, in the special settings of the Finnish school system, teacher education and media education, educational theory is less utilized. There is a need for a holistic presentation of media education theory from the point of view of didactics, a sub-science of the systematic study of education. I argue that didactic theory can suggest the way media education in the school context, covering the current media scene too, should be understood.

The aim of my PhD summary is to present a conceptual analysis of media education as practised in the context of Finnish basic education.[1] The structure of this doctoral dissertation will follow the subject didactic dimension of media education, which can be seen as one of the main results of my conceptual analysis. In the Discussion, I will present another important result, namely, Episodic Media Education.

In this research, media education is defined as education with aspects of teaching, studying and learning in connection with media in terms of content (media texts), tools (media) and societal actors (agents or mechanisms).

1.1 Media + education: a subject didactic dimension of media education

In many languages, when concepts consisting of two parts, such as media education, are used, it is commonly understood that the first part of the concept delimits the second part. This partly applies to my conceptual analysis as well, although not completely. I have chosen to approach media education by recognizing the two parts of the concept, media and education.

My approach is to give equal weight to the two parts of this concept: media and education. When theorizing about media education in this way, I concluded (Vesterinen et al., 2006) that media education with a starting point in 'media' or 'education' can focus on questions of 'what' and 'how'. The cross-tabulation of these starting points and these questions (what and how) in focus leads to different types of approaches. Media-based and education-based media education were then selected as the two main approaches. Based on this, I argue that a subject didactic dimension of media education can be formed in three steps (see Figure 1).

[1] Basic education is the term used when referring to comprehensive schools in the Finnish educational system. Basic, or compulsory, education in Finland usually starts when a child is seven and has a nine-year syllabus, and nearly all children subject to compulsory education complete it. (http://oph.fi/english/education/basic_education)

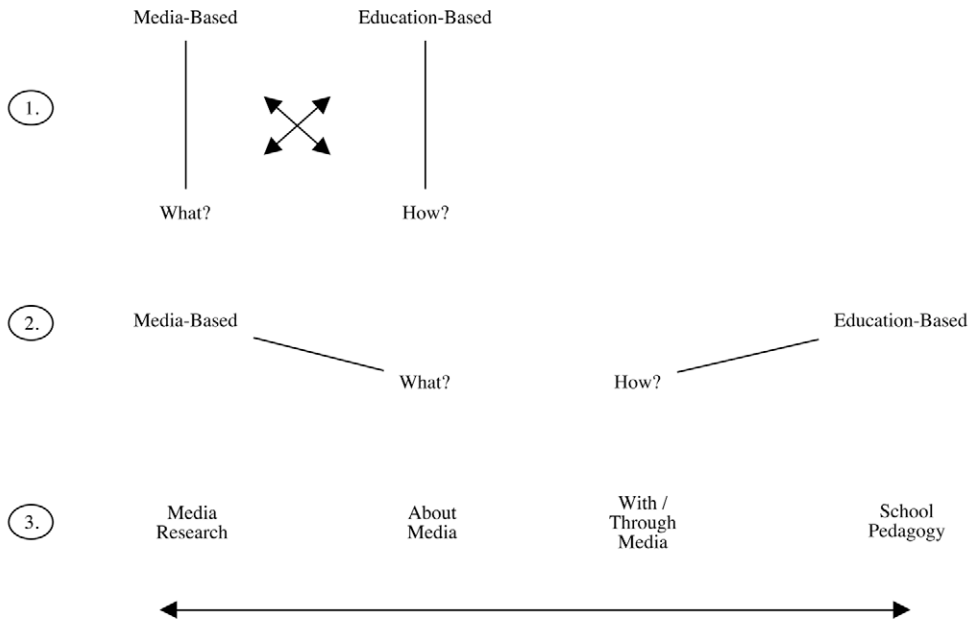


Figure 1. The way a subject didactic dimension of media education can be formed (based on Vesterinen et al., 2006; Vesterinen, 2007a).

In this dissertation, the concept of subject didactics is used following the German research tradition and the idea behind the concept of *Fachdidaktik* (subject didactics). Subject-matter didactics (Kansanen, 2009b) and subject-specific pedagogy (McDiarmid, Ball & Anderson, 1989) are also used in the research literature. Generally subject didactics refers to Shulman's (1987) Anglo-American concept of pedagogical content knowledge, or variations of that (see Slåtten, 1998), but subject didactics can be seen as a wider scientific area covering moral matters related to the teaching–studying–learning (TSL) process, too. The concept of school pedagogy is used here since in school pedagogy, the TSL process is seen in its wider social context including attention to neighbouring sciences such as social studies and politics (Kansanen, 2009b, p. 35).

In the systematic study of education when the name of an educational field ends in the word 'education', as in media education, it may mean many things (Kansanen, 2004). Does it mean the educational philosophy related to that field, the educational policies related to that field or could it be replaced with 'pedagogy' when a research tradition of didactics is concerned? That leads us to ask whether, instead of media education, we could use other concepts such as media pedagogy or media didactics, too (cf. Kotilainen, 2001)? We can argue that subject didactics research is often grounded on the respective field of science and, on the other hand, the science of teaching, and focuses on research into how the subject is taught (Kansanen, 2009a, p. 32). That also applies to research on the subject didactics of media education, too.

Subject didactics has naturally given more emphasis to the question of curricular content and its structure than to general aspects of the TSL process, which are covered in general didactics (Kansanen, 2009b, p. 10). The subject didactic dimension of media education presented here acknowledges the possibility of approaching subject didactics from the other direction, too, that is, from the general view of the TSL process towards content (see Figure 1).

McLuhan (1964) highlighted technology (i.e. media) in meaning making. Although subject didactics cannot exist without content and the teaching of that content, McLuhan's argument that 'the medium is the message' urges us to consider this other side of the subject matter, too. McLuhan underlines the importance of the medium and emphasizes that a generic form of media affects communication. Federman (2004) analyses McLuhan's argument even further. He suggests that 'message' should not be understood as content or information in the traditional way. Message is the change of scale or pace or pattern that a new invention or innovation introduces into human affairs. It is not the content or use of the innovation, but the change in inter-personal dynamics. 'Medium' again is any extension of ourselves, our body or our senses or mind (Federman, 2004). Could a media education approach to subject didactics be founded on the idea of studying and learning about 'any extension of our body or senses or mind'?

Finnish media education researchers have also presented the same kind of ideas. The form of communication bears meanings and culture, just as much as content (Härkönen, 1994; Koistinen, 1998, p. 41; Kupiainen, 2005, p. 78). When methods of the TSL process are seen in terms of McLuhan's arguement about medium and message, the content of teaching might also turn out to be a secondary issue also in subject didactics. This would mean that other issues, such as the relationship between a teacher and her/his students, the contexts of the TSL process and the ways of representing subject matters (cf. Kansanen, 2009b, p. 8), are considered before content.

Traditionally, school subjects are based on different disciplines. In subject didactics, the context is defined by the subject, field of science or culture (Åhlberg, 1998). Subject didactics must have research and development traditions of its own, which should be borne in mind when conducting a systematic study in this field. Mathematics as a school subject, for example, is justified in terms of cumulative learning to meet the challenges that the student will face when applying for example to higher education. Reid (1999) calls this the sequential significance. The school subject relates to the field(s) of science behind the subject.

In didactics, the subject teacher's profession is usually theorized through knowledge of the respective subject (content) and the pedagogical aspects related to it (methods). In mathematics, for instance, a teacher has to know not only mathematics but also how to teach it. If we were to name one discipline which media education as a school subject would be based on, it would be media studies or communication. Although media educational research includes paradigms drawn from a range of disciplines (Tella, 1998, 96), the main background for media education would be based on media studies and a systematic study of education (cf. Kansanen, 2009a, p. 32).

If we follow Kansanen's idea (2009a, p. 32), where two partly overlapping areas, field of science and education, form the subject didactic foundation, the interest in this dissertation is to divide this overlapping area in two. In the overlapping area, the half concerning media and the other half concerning education can then be discussed separately. From the teacher's perspective we then have four areas:

1. Content (as the substance of media research)
   - the media (mass media, the web and all mediated communication)
2. Subject Didactics I (about media)
   - how and what to teach about the media
3. Subject Didactics II (with / though media)
   - how and why to teach with media / through some medium
4. (School) Pedagogy
   - the general issues of teaching, studying and learning

These four areas are parts of the subject didactic dimension of media education (see Figure 2).

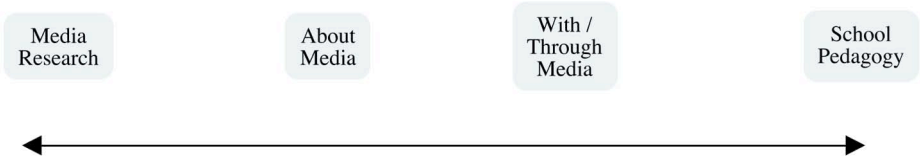


Figure 2. The four areas of subject didactic dimension of media education (based on Vesterinen, 2007a).

The difference between the second and third area is that the second area is dependent on content knowledge whereas the third area deals more with basic educational tasks. The different school subjects just offer a variation of that. In this dimension (1–4), all four areas contain different ways of and reasons for promoting media education. This also becomes clear through Kansanen's description of the aspects of didactics, where media should be understand first of all as a teaching medium.

> It is, however, important to note that subject matter or content is only one part of general didaktik. Differences between students also remain important concerns in all didaktik decisions. Other contributing aspects may be, for example, the age of the student (Stufendidaktik), the media (Mediendidaktik), the type of school (Schulartdidaktik), and the free-time activities of students (Freizeitdidaktik) (Kansanen, 2009a, p. 31).

Hence in media education, it is possible to view media either as content or as a general didactic aspect, the way *Mediendidaktik* is perceived in the quotation by Kansanen. Although not that easy in practice, it is possible for research purposes to view these four areas separately (cf. Kansanen, 2009b, p. 15). The four areas of the

subject didactic dimension of media education presented (Figure 2) are one of the most fundamental structures of my argumentation. Based on the above, my argument is that (1) media as content of teaching, (2) media literacy teaching, (3) the use of media in teaching and (4) the general aspects of education can be viewed as a subject didactic dimension of media education.

Media education has features typical of a school subject. A clear aim in media education is to support students' media literacy. Hence some knowledge and skills related to media are understood as content that may construct a school subject of its own. Media education has special features, its own research foci and development traditions, which should not be forgotten, either.

However in the school context, media education is rarely an autonomous school subject. Therefore, it appears to connect with the question of how the teaching, studying and learning of different content (subjects) are carried out. Also when subject education functions penetrate the whole society, as in media literacy issues, we are closer to general pedagogy instead of a subject-specific pedagogy (cf. Kansanen, 2009a, p. 32). Therefore, I also argue that it is necessary to see media education as a wider educational phenomenon, instead of a potential school subject in its own right, since it is part of all teaching, studying and learning.

But first, let us go through some definitions related to media education. First we shall look at the concepts of media and media literacy, and then we will focus on education as a defining principle.

1.2 Definitions of media education based on media literacy

In European Union documents, the following aspects have been included in defining media literacy: (1) the alibity to access and use media, (2) understanding media, (3) the ability to evaluate and assess media critically, and (4) creating media (Borg & Lauri, 2010). UNESCO has recently combined media literacy with information literacy, and the Model Curriculum on Media and Information Literacy (MIL) for Teachers developed includes the roles of libraries, archives and museums as sources of media and information (UNESCO, 2008).

In Finland, the national core curriculum for basic education (POPS, 2004) includes a cross-curricular theme called 'Media Skills and Communication'. The theme could be called media literacy, too, as the aim is 'to improve skills in expression and interaction, to advance understanding of the media's position and importance, and to improve skills in using the media' (POPS, 2004, p. 37).

Partly the chosen concepts also indicate the problem of translating concepts from one language to another and then back to the original language. In the core curriculum, it is also mentioned that students 'are to practise media skills as both producers and recipients of messages', which implies that the use of the Finnish word for media literacy, *medialukutaito* (ability to read media), would have received a controversial reception. (POPS, 2004, p. 37.)

Instead of school subjects in their own right, the cross-curricular themes are the basis for integrating subject teaching.

> Cross-curricular themes represent central emphases of the educational and teaching work. Their objectives and contents are incorporated into numerous subjects; they integrate the education and instruction. Through them, the educational challenges of the time are also met (POPS, 2004, p. 36).

The phrase 'they integrate education and instruction' can be understood as the integration of general educational tasks (including the teachers' moral responsibilities towards the students) and subject content teaching. Hence media education is mostly combined with studying and learning the subject content and the primary goals of teaching are derived from that school subject. Secondary goals may then relate to media literacy in various ways.

In Anglo-American research literature, media education has been defined with a clear focus on teaching about media. Buckingham (2003, p. 4) defines media education as 'the process of teaching and learning about media; media literacy is the outcome—the knowledge and skills learners acquire.' Buckingham's definition is widely used and it is practical in many ways. However, two aspects need rethinking: (1) media literacy should be seen, in addition to the acquired knowledge and skills, as an attitude for participation and as a process of media analysis and production, and (2) the concept of media education needs to be widened so that some aspects of an educational media approach, that is studying and learning with/through media, are met too. We will now have a look at these two statements more closely.

First, the concept of media literacy is of course crucial when thinking about media education. The American research literature even uses the concept media literacy education and there is an accociation (NAMLE.net) and an online interdisciplinary journal (JMLE.org) of media literacy education.

However, when highlighting the actual use of the knowledge and skills related to media, the realization of media literacy takes place in each situation and context of media practices (cf. Street, 1984; 2003). Instead of the result, the process becomes central. This field of interest has broadened in to a general discussion about literacies and especially the so-called new literacies. Lankshear and Knobel (2006, p. 64) have defined new literacies as 'socially recognized ways of generating, communicating and negotiating meaningful content through the medium of encoded texts within contexts of participation in Discourses (or, as members of Discourses).'

Rantala and Korhonen (2008, p. 5) argue instead that 'literacy practices are practices of media production.' The presented interpretations change the ways in which one should see the assessment of media literacy, too. In addition to proofs or evidence of acquired knowledge and skills, the process of using this knowledge and these skills becomes the core issue. This presents of course a challenge for institutional education such as conducted in a school. In what ways, if any, can this type of approach to media literacy be assessed? If it cannot be assessed, how meaningful and relevant can this interpretation of media literacy be, for example, in the school context?

One problem with media literacy occurs also when translating the concept to Finnish, as mentioned above. In Finnish research literature, substitute concepts ha-

ve been suggested such as *mediataito* (media proficiency, Ruokamo & Tella, 2005), *mediataju* (media sense, Sihvonen, 2004) and *mediakompetenssi* (media competence, Varis, 1998). This of course leads us to ask, whether the concept of media literacy is still useful or should one use other concept(s) when a special emphasis is required. Here, the use of the concept of media literacy can still be justified by its universality in English speaking countries. In Finnish, the selective use of the direct translation can be justified but other concepts defined by Finnish media educationists should be considered, too, as they highlight various interpretations and also illustrate different scientific backgrounds and rationalities.

Second, traditionally, in the UK, the educational use of media has been distinguished from media education. The educational use of media is in connection with the concept of educational technology, widely used in Anglo-American countries as well as in Finland (opetusteknologia). Educational technology refers to the tools and materials used but also the processes of applying them (Roblyer & Edwards, 2000, p. 6). In Finland, media education and educational technology has had a rather close connection (see Kupiainen, Sintonen & Suoranta, 2008, p. 21). However, the overly strong focus on technology, namely, tools, has received some criticism, too, among media educationalists.

Then why in the UK the educational technology is not taken as a part of media education? This relates to a more elaborate (subject) teacher identity in Media Studies (earlier Film Studies) which can be studied from the age of 14 onwards. The approach to media education in the UK has been built on key concepts (Bazalgette, 1989; Buckingham, 1998) which all refer to studying and learning about media.[2] Since Media Studies has been recognized as a school subject in the UK school system, it seems natural that this kind of definition is needed to highlight the importance and unique nature of the curricular content in question.

However, the question of excluding the educational media aspect from media education needs rethinking in the Finnish context. As a field of research, Finnish media education is seen as a wide area instead of a narrow construction. Finnish media education research has been conducted in various fields and domains of science (Kupiainen, Sintonen & Suoranta, 2008, p. 21). The theoretical basis of media education also emanates from several scientific backgrounds (Tella, 1998). In addition, in different Finnish universities, it is based on different scientific backgrounds. In the University of Helsinki Media Education Centre, for instance, media education was initially rooted in educational sciences and in didactics, with a special emphasis on the educational use of information and communication technologies (ICTs). Therefore, the educational media aspects have been connected to the concept of media education, too. According to Kupiainen, Sintonen and Suoranta (2008, p. 6), 'in Finland media education is taken also to encompass teaching with the help of media... In practice, teaching with the help of media and teaching media frequently dovetail into each other.'

[2] The key concepts have comprised of the following media-related concepts: agencies, categories, technologies, languages, audiences and representations. For more on this, see p. 23.

In this research, media education is defined in terms of content (media texts), tools (media) and societal actors (agents or mechanisms)—in the way the press, for instance, has traditionally been interpreted (see Williams, 1976). Based on this, the case studies of my dissertation (Kynäslahti, et al., 2008; Vesterinen, Kynäslahti & Tella, 2010) touch on three horizontal representations of media: (1) the analysis of media texts, (2) learning about media tools as well as their use in education, and (3) understanding the mechanisms of media institutions.

The three areas overlap but also have somewhat different foci. To elaborate on this further, a comparison between these three areas and the approaches used in some recent doctoral dissertations in Finnish media education will be undertaken. According to Kupiainen (2005, p. 75), media is about materialized technology (or equipment), the ways of expression, the media texts, as well as the practices by which the media texts are produced, shared and received. Instead of a horizontally interpreted definition, Sintonen (2001, pp. 31–32; based on Mäyrä, 2000) builds vertically, but not necessarily hierarchically, three levels related to media education: tools together with expressional and constructional views, content aspects and cultural views.

In addition to these definitions, a comparison can be made with the model of key concepts of media education (Bazalgette, 1989; Buckingham, 1998) as well as with the traditional division of domains of educational activities, that is knowledge, skills and attitudes (Henceforth KSA) (see Bloom et al., 1956). ‘The analysis of media texts’ primarily relates to knowledge domain in the domains of educational activities. When compared to key concepts, it covers media categories, media representations and media languages (Table 1). ‘Learning about media tools as well as their use in education’ relates to the skills domain in Bloom’s set of domains and in key concepts to media technologies. ‘The mechanisms of media institutions’ are connected with attitudes and with two key concepts: media agencies and media audiences.

Table 1. Defining media education in the school context and its relation to some definitions and categorizations.

Three representations of 'media' that are covered in the case studies:	**Bloom (1956) KSA, domains of educational activities**	**Bazalgette (1989) & Buckingham (1998), key concepts of media education**	**Kupiainen (2005), the concept of media**	**Sintonen (2001), media education**
Analysis of media texts	cognitive domain: knowledge	media categories, representations and languages	media texts	content
Learning with media	technical[3] domain: skills	media technologies	materialized tools, ways of expression	tools and narrative constructions
Mechanisms of media	affective domain: attitude	media agencies and audiences	practices of production, sharing and receiving	cultures of reception and production

Instead of three areas, a dualistic approaches have also been used when defining media education. In their definition of media education, Suoranta and Ylä-Kotola (2000) had an object-theoretical dimension and a technical-practical dimension. The object-theoretical dimension of media education discusses how we understand media texts whereas the technical-practical dimension of media education highlights the skills required for using media in learning and teaching (Suoranta & Ylä-Kotola, 2000, pp. 17–22). Some similar types of dualistic views have divided media education focuses into (a) the analysis of media texts and (b) the creation and use of media texts (Härkönen, 1994; Kotilainen, 1999, pp. 33–34; 2001, p. 49). Likewise, Buckingham (2003, p. 4) argues that media education should concern both a critical understanding of and active participation in media.

More and more media education research is conducted in relation to various educational goals, some of which seem unrealistic. Media education is seen as a solution to many problems in school and in society (Buckingham, 1998, p. 37). Although the research in this field can focus on various interests, the heart of media education is essentially education which relates to media. As Kupiainen and Sintonen (2009, p. 15) put it, 'media education is education and learning about media and around media.'

1.3 Definitions of media education related to education

The concept of media evolved above (p. 8) involved three interpretations: content, tool and institutions/mechanisms. Now we shift the focus to the 'education' part of

[3] Originally Bloom's Taxonomy (1956) included a psycho-motor domain related to skills, but in the context of media education and modern ICTs, the term 'technical' is used here.

our definition task. Kotilainen (2001, pp. 48–50) presents the practical and scientific fields of media education as follows: (1) Informal learning and social pedagogy (activities around media outside school); (2) Teaching about media (as in the UK's Media Studies); (3) Teaching with the help of media (e.g. distance education). As early as the beginning of the 20th century the same line of thought had been presented albeit at a more general level. According to Soininen (1901; 1906), the key elements in research on teaching are:

1. Investigating the sphere of the student's knowledge and out-of-school activities (*oppilaan tieto- ja harrastuspiirin tutkiminen*)
2. Selecting and organising the substance of teaching (*opetusaineksen valitseminen ja järjestäminen; opetussuunnitelma-oppi*)
3. Seeking the method of teaching (*opetusmenettelyn hakeminen; metodioppi*)

The first one, investigating the sphere of the student's knowledge and out-of-school activities, connects easily to media education where the bridge between formal education and the students' informal learning is crossed all the time. The other two are traditionally identified as two main areas of research on teaching: curriculum studies and methods of teaching (Koskenniemi, 1978, p. 11). Curriculum studies has built on the basic understanding of human beings and human growth. From there the normative values and principles of education are derived (Uljens, 1997, pp. 26–27). The methods relate to questions such as how to represent the actual content, what working methods are used by the students, and what kind of instructional and evaluative methods should the teacher use (Terhart, 1989).

The field of research, where this dissertation lays down its arguments, is the systematic study of education, and as a part of that, didactics is defined as the science of the teaching–studying–learning (TSL) process (Uljens, 1997, p. 43). Why use a didactical concept of the TSL process instead of the traditional conceptual pair of 'teaching and learning'? Uljens (1997, p. 20) emphasizes the meaning of intentionality. It is extremely important to highlight studying in the TSL process since the line of intentionality is easily blurred in the Anglo-American 'teaching and learning' discourse. The idea behind the TSL process is that institutional teaching can connect with actual learning inside a student's head only through intentional and active studying by the student (Uljens, 1997, pp. 23–27).

Didactic research is directed towards institutionally organized TSL situations, that is, situations characterized by certain culturally agreed-upon expectations and roles (Uljens, 1997). The teacher's tasks, for example, include developing the skill to mediate and facilitate the student's study of the content (Kansanen, 2009b, p. 6). In ordinary life, the structure of the communicative pattern can be similar to the pattern in schools, but the conditions for communication, such as the curriculum and school traditions, radically circumscribe the situation (Uljens, 1997, p. 26).

The TSL process articulates the process from the product of learning. A common and crucial question in theories of learning is how changes occur in the way in which an individual acts or experiences, understands, conceptualizes, approaches, recalls, handles, manipulates or treats something in her/his natural and cultural con-

text (Uljens, 1997, pp. 27–28). These terms are, not always but often, used to refer to both the process of learning and the result of learning. There is good reason to sustain the distinction between studying and learning, since teachers are concerned with teaching students how to study, hoping thereby to make learning come about. What teachers are able to influence in educational situations is precisely how students try to reach a certain degree of competence, that is, how they study. (Uljens, 1997, pp. 28–29.)

In the field of educational technology, Mitra and Dangwal (2010) have reported on the ways children can learn curricular content without teachers. From the perspective of didactics, it would however be problematic in their research case to say that children teach themselves with the help of the Internet for example. Children do learn by themselves but they do not teach themselves. Of course, they can and they should study on their own and in that way assume more responsibility for their own study processes. In an institutional context like a school, teaching takes place only if someone's, usually the teacher's, main intention is to help someone else to study in order to learn. After all, learning and other desirable changes, or more generally, the defined development of the student's personality, is the primary purpose of the TSL process (Kansanen, 2009b). In summary, teaching should lead to purposive (*tavoitteinen*) studying, which is then expected to lead to meaningful (*mielekäs*) learning (Tissari et al., 2005). In addition, the educational task of a school includes helping students to grow up and socializing them to society.

When defining education as the second part of the concept of media education, instead of the traditional TSL schematic, four sub-concepts (cf. Ruokamo & Tella, 2005) are presented here with a somewhat different emphasis as follows: learning, studying, teaching and helping children to grow up.

Learning. Learning in the TSL process connects with the relationship between the individual and media. This has an effect on how individual understands her-/himself, others and society around her/him. This is often an unconcious process which deals with emotions too. The idea is that studying is active and intentional but the actual learning that occurs is passive in terms of an individual's decision making, as explained above.

Studying. There are two ways 'studying' should be concieved in the definition. First, a major aspect of studying in the TSL process relates to questioning the above-mentioned learning, that is, the automatic process related to the human–media relationship. In psychology, we would be dealing with the concept of metacognition, in other words becoming aware of media-related experiences and guiding and controlling them (see Son & Schwartz, 2002). We learn when we watch TV for example, but media education aims to make that learning process more transparent for the person watching TV (the idea of decoding presented by Hall, 1980). Second, studying refers to intentional activities that are carried out in the institutional context where media education takes place. An example of studying–learning is a walk on the street. The intentional actions in the specific settings on the street can be seen as moving from place A to B. Reaching B is then like learning but the actual moving can be seen as studying. However, studying–learning includes much more. Although B might not be reached, moving has happened to some extent and

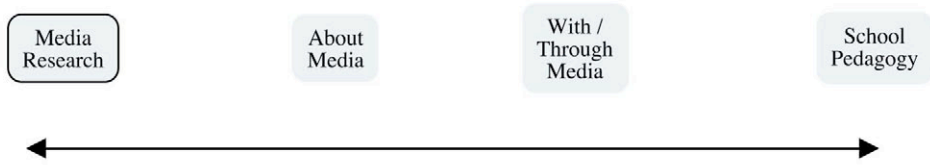
some other place is ultimately reached. The intentionality refers to questions such as, who is to define B, how is one committed to reach B, and is any support given in order to reach B? All the events during the path from A to B are important and meaningful although they might not be relevant in terms of the primary goal, namely, reaching B. This example shows how learning takes place all the time, but a curriculum driven TSL process naturally emphasizes the learning that occurs as a result of an intentional studying process.

Teaching. The concept of teaching is important although the role of passing on knowledge (teaching as transmission) has developed towards a wider role involving the interaction between a student and the curriculum. A teacher uses tools and materials in teaching. Learning materials and for example learning software support a student's study process. A problem occurs when the intentionality of the use of such materials and software is lost. The teacher passes the responsibility of the TSL process to, for example, a dvd or an educational game. The same thing can happen when text books exert too strong an influence (Kansanen et al., 2000, p. 28).

Helping children to grow up. The fourth aspect we must acknowledge is helping children to grow up. According to Kansanen (2004), an individual's holistic development in order to become a member of society is expressed by the German concept of *Bildung*. In German research literature, the concept of *Medienbildung* is used in media education (Varis, 2005, p. 23). Another example of the aspects of education derived from this perspective is the relationship between parents and their children. The responsibility of raising children is divided between home and school. Media can feed the moral side of school education, too. The moral dilemmas related to media become more concrete when a teacher faces a conflict that requires her/him to make decisions (Tirri, 1999, p. 31).

To summarize what has been presented in this chapter, the definition of media education (see also Vesterinen, 2007b) can be presented as follows: Media education is education with aspects of teaching, studying and learning in connection with media in terms of content (media texts), tools (media) and societal actors (agents or mechanisms).

2 Media



The first stop in our journey through the subject didactic dimension of media education is media in the role which is usually given to subject content in the subject didactic theory. Hence media research when understood as a discipline-based subject matter needs to be covered if a holistic picture of media education theory is presented from the point of view of didactics.

In addition, one focus is taken since media research could focus on mass media, mobile technologies or actually on any mediated communication. That is why social media as one of the current phenomena is the focus here.

2.1 Social media shift

Media can be interpreted as content, tool or mechanisms of communication, as explained in the Introduction chapter. All these aspects of media have experienced changes. The way media has changed is at least evolutionary if not revolutionary. It is easy to argue that the Internet has been one of the big corner stones of the development of media, and its current version, often called Web 2.0, has been the most remarkable phase in its history since the world wide web (WWW) emerged in the 1980s and 1990s. The changes are often explained by technological innovations (as term Web 2.0 implies) but the changes have been even more dramatic in the ways we use the existing technology. That is why the term social media might be more relevant in terms of media education.

The concept of social media has been more difficult to define than Web 2.0. Social media has included current tools and services as well as processes where the content is created, shared and evaluated (Erkkola, 2008; Lietsala & Sirkkunen, 2008). Nevertheless, Web 2.0, as distinct from what is now called Web 1.0, was a convenient starting point for research on media. Generally, Web 2.0 refers to computer technologies whereas social media, to the mode of communication (Sanastokeskus, 2010).

2.2 Web 2.0 and volition in media literacy

Our interest has been in the use of Web 2.0 and its effects on media literacy. A framework for the connection between media literacy and media production has been built (Kynäslahti et al., 2008). So far it has been fair to ask if Web 2.0 really has any significance as a new phenomenon (e.g., O'Reilly, 2005) or whether it is just a group of applications using high-speed connections (e.g., Shaw, 2005). It is

definitely the case that the applications or technology usually connected with Web 2.0 already existed a decade ago (Scholz, 2008). Web 2.0 can be seen as an economic concept but we have perceived it as a current version of the Internet with an emphasis on its social and participatory features.

From the media educational point of view, two stands towards Web 2.0 and volition are taken here: (i) the perspective of an individual web user and (ii) how web content is produced and what the relation is between an average web user and content production.

But why volition? Under the constructs of personality, the domain of conation has two key areas: motivation and volition (Snow, Corno & Jackson, 1996). Within curriculum-driven studying in school, the use of ICTs has helped to improve student motivation. Web 2.0 instead increases the media education aspects involved and brings in the question of volition. In school-based media education, the students' use of Web 2.0 applications can open the way to volitional media literacy. This allows the student to find pedagogically meaningful approaches and therefore it adds space for the student to self-regulate the ways that school tasks are carried out (cf. Mylläri et al., n.d.).

The standard dictionary definitions of the terms 'voluntary' and 'volition' refer to behaviour that flows from 'the will' (Kimble & Perlmuter, 1970, p. 362). In relation to media literacy, volition can be seen as an individual's own conscious desire and will to conduct some external act; for example, to participate in collaborative communication (Kynäslahti et al., 2008). Hence the concept of volition refers to authentic and autonomous agency (Wallace, 2006, p. 191). Within the TSL process, one psychological view would suggest that volition refers to a situation where the student of her/his own will concentrates on a particular task rather than being distracted (Corno, 1993).

What we did was to look into university-level media education students' knowledge of Web 2.0 and studied their conceptions of Web 2.0's impact on media literacy (for more, see Kynäslahti et al., 2008). When the university-level media education students were asked if Web 2.0 necessitates a new kind of media literacy (scale 1–7: mean, 5.44; standard deviation, 1.539), 73% of the respondents strongly agreed with the statement that a new kind of media literacy would be needed. With an open-ended question, they were asked to justify their answers. Through qualitative content analysis, six categories were found for new media literacy (see Table 2). Those categories were (1) willingness, (2) collective activities, (3) authority of knowledge, (4) users as producers, (5) checking the reliability of knowledge and (6) teaching media literacy. They all give us a different angle from which we can look at the type of media literacy needed in the Web 2.0 world.

When operating on a higher conceptual level, all these categories characterize (new) media literacy in their own way. Hence the six categories were conceptualized in terms of the characteristics of volition in media literacy: individual, communal, non-agency, agency, instrumental and pedagogical. These characteristics will be elaborated upon next. The first two, individual and communal, are related. So are non-agency and agency, as well as instrumental and pedagogical.

Table 2. The categories of qualitative content analysis and the conceptual pairs, which characterize Web 2.0 and volition in media literacy.

Category in the content analysis	Characteristic of volition
1. Willingness	Individual
2. Collective activities	Communal
3. Authority of knowledge	Non-agency
4. Users as producers	Agency
5. Checking the reliability of knowledge	Instrumental
6. Teaching media literacy	Pedagogical

The first category, willingness, focuses on the individual angle as to what the students thought the new kind of media literacy is all about. The psychological aspects in particular are then stressed. The second category, collective activities, represents the collective or communal angle. At the same time, this characteristic accentuates the social aspects of (new) media literacy.

The third category, authority of knowledge, concerns the receptive role in media consumption. This characteristic challenges us to make epistemic considerations about the influence for example of folksonomy for plausibly presented information in Web 2.0. Folksonomy can be understood as a collaborative and social way to categorize content. Hence it can be seen as a user-generated taxonomy for texts and other media presentations.

Opposite this non-agency characteristic is the fourth category, users as producers, which emphasizes the increased opportunities for any web user to produce content easily (O'Reilly, 2005). Albert Toffler suggested something similar. In 1980 he said that a new kind of economy changes the role of the consumer. He launched the concept of 'prosumer', which is a combination of producer and consumer (Toffler, 1980). Open source software development has a similar concept, 'ugrammer' (user and programmer). This type of conceptual suggestion characterizes agency in media literacy in the era of Web 2.0.

The fifth category emphasized in the students' responses is the means for checking the reliability of information in Web 2.0. What kind of technical and conceptual means are needed for checking whether or not Web 2.0 content is reliable? This provides us with an instrumental angle on to (new) media literacy. Technical features such as blog commenting increase the reliability of a blog post. Also conceptual means are needed such as folksonomy, which was mentioned above.

The final category concerns media literacy education (i.e. teaching media literacy) and relates to what was said earlier. In Web 2.0 the pedagogical aspect of media literacy emphasizes the need for concepts that are easy to adopt. We have suggested one concept, which opens the question of the reliability of information, 'a neighbor blogosphere'. It means the part of the web, which gives pieces of confirmation concerning, for example, the blog post's reliability. It includes the comments left on the blog, the links that lead to other blogs and websites concerning the statements of the post, and other blogs which link to this post.

Based on these results the following arguments can be presented: (i) media literacy is constantly changing, (ii) the use of the web is changing but in a non-linear fashion, (iii) actual content production by the average web user is still very low and (iv) web content is less and less officially produced and more and more aggregated from original media presentations and the web users social life as well as forwarded from one web service to another.

New features of media literacy. The students were convinced of the necessity of a new kind of media literacy. It includes volition to produce, construct, share and categorize knowledge, opinions and experiences. It has individual, communal, agency-related and instrumental-pedagogical characteristics, as mentioned above. Concerning the individual characteristic the most important thing is the willingness to participate. That is why Web 2.0 supports the idea of the web as a participatory media (Jenkins, 2007[4]). The former 'text-centred' approach in which media texts could be deconstructed and analyzed so that we could choose among them (Lewis & Jhally, 1998, p. 109) has been challenged by these participatory aspects. Media literacy can therefore be referred to the competence, knowledge and skills needed to use and interpret different media and to produce content and take pleasure in various media including Web 2.0 applications. The changing authority of knowledge is another key issue. In the 1990's discussion concentrated on the reliability of the information in the web. Now the discussion is shifting towards who decides what information is correct and incorrect. The study inspires us to see the present web as a sort of post-modern web. There are plural truths, some of which suit one person better than another. It must be taken into account that all information is actually value-related. Hence the way much social semiotics understands learning (as social meaning-making) is a well-grounded approach to knowledge too. If meaning-making is understood as a social practice, learning and representing knowledge through Web 2.0 also changes the way we should understand media literacy. That includes the ways Web 2.0 allows ordinary web users to value content with thumbs (up/down), comments, etc.

New ways of using the web. The ways of using the web have changed. First of all, web content can be accessed from various devices (computer, a portable media player, cell phone, etc.) and interfaces (a video clip in YouTube can be viewed in Facebook, with an RSS reader, etc.). The same applies with uploading content. Second, so-called social filtering is becoming more and more common (Bryant, 2007). Social filtering means that someone is filtering web content for others to follow. It is understood that the ordinary web user favours and prefers what others read and recommend. If you trust someone's expertise in some area, you can more easily accept her/his preferences. However, the question of anonymity must be seen as bidirectional. In addition to anonymity comprising the presenting and shielding of oneself, it also deals with the issue of the others' identity and intentions. Going along with certain people's preferences without having a larger perspective on the issue is probably a very interesting tool for marketing people and

[4] Jenkins (2007) prefers other concepts than Web 2.0 such as participatory media. He emphasizes the changes in the cultural level instead of economical or technological level.

politicians, too. Third, one example of the shift 'from global back to local' is the emphasis on networking with friends you already know. If some years ago the web was glamorized by phrases like 'connecting you with people around the world', social network sites (such as Facebook) are now emphasizing more the idea of connecting you with people around you. Web communities with members who do not have a shared past in real life still exist, but social networking has partly turned into keeping in contact more with people you have met earlier, with an existing social network.

The amount of content production. In the research case, the students' use of Web 2.0 applications turned out to be rather passive (see Kynäslahti et al., 2008). They did not really utilize the potential Web 2.0 provided them. Similar results were reported from the University of Oxford (White, 2007). Those results showed, for example, that only just over every fourth respondent was writing a blog. Of course users might simply view the content offered through Web 2.0 applications, instead of contributing. Not everyone actually has to contribute, but as Jenkins (2007, p. 7) argues, describing this new participatory culture, 'all must believe they are free to contribute when ready and that what they contribute will be appropriately valued.' Ultimately, the media education students in our research believed that Web 2.0 would have potential in today's changing world. This encourages us to see the future media educators increasingly bringing learner-created content into their pedagogical practice.

The nature of content in the web. Web content has changed. It used to consist of web sites produced by public or private organizations. Now there is more content that has been produced by end-users. This type of content can be divided into two established categories:

1. User-created content (UCC) such as wikis, blogs and home-made videos,
2. User-generated content (UGC) such as media presentations that are remixed and forwarded by end-users, and our suggested third category, namely,
3. Generated content about users' social activities (GCUSA) such as in microblogging and in social utilities (like Facebook).

UCC and UGC can be perceived in various ways and often overlap but some particularities can be presented in the light of volitional media literacy. UCC is more original and self-made content whereas UGC is often reconstructions of media presentations produced by someone else. GCUSA again is a conceptual suggestion for material which is hardly a genuine media presentation but is still greatly watched and brought to one's presence aggregator (e.g. Twitter) in the form of comments and personal status updates. Comments and favorites are having a lot to do with the anticipated popularity of the content as well as its ranking in search engines.

When seen as a current version of the Internet (with an emphasis on its social and participatory features) Web 2.0 will not only gather new definitions until the new

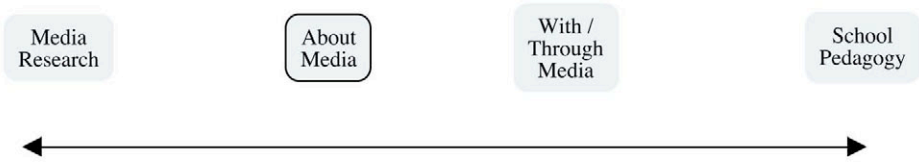
concepts take its place[5] but will also develop and mature in the hands of technical developers and, most of all, ordinary users of the web.

In future, the web, it seems, will be more fragmented. At the same time, users can operate with (or choose between) several services and applications. Hence the things that were usually done inside one service can be done in several different services. Instead of one big service (e.g. Facebook) there will be many services offering users either new ways to communicate through and across the applications they like or to control several applications from one service as is the case in many places.

Therefore Web 2.0 related media literacy would be more and more about understanding and being able to operate across different services and applications. The media production of an average web user will also include understanding the things affecting the access to content s/he has published. Access will not be limited to the service where the content was originally published but will be available from various other services, which are able to communicate across the services. Media literacy also includes understanding what sorts of things affect the popularity and ranking of the content and how some users manipulate these. As a societal aspect of the future web, one interesting phenomenon and concept in terms of volition will be cognitive surplus, which means that the freetime we have is used through Web 2.0 for something good, something that contributes to our society (Shirky, 2010).

[5] Already Web 2.0 has been replaced with Web 3.0 (and actually with a whole sequence of numbered versions).

3 Teaching, Studying and Learning about Media



In order to be didactics, the discipline-based subject matter (as presented in the previous chapter) must be transformed into a school subject. The process is essential for didactic inquiry. Therefore, I will continue about volition in media literacy but now with the idea of transforming this selected area of media research into a media pedagogical syllabus.

Only after this will I clarify the question between Subject Didactics I and Subject Didactics II. This also relates to the question whether media education should have school subject status or not. An elaboration can be achieved through a didactic concept analysis.

3.1 Pedagogy for volition in media literacy

The descriptive research case about characteristics of volition in media literacy (Kynäslahti et al., 2008) continued with some more normative pedagogical considerations and implementations in the school context. Formal and informal learning is often discussed when it comes to students' out-of-school knowledge and skills related to media (Bull et al., 2008). Our challenge in terms of implementation was in the problematic question of combining formal education and informal learning. Aiming for students' volitional media literacy in institutional, curriculum-driven school teaching was not a simple task. What we understood was that one does not need the latest technology to practise a pedagogy which highlights the current needs of media literacy. In other words, one does not need Web 2.0 tools for learning which takes into account 'Media literacy 2.0'. Too many times an attempt is made to develop pedagogy through technology without proper consideration being given to the pedagogical thinking behind the aims.

As presented in the earlier chapter, the findings related to volition in media literacy consisted of six categories that should be acknowledged when rethinking the concept of media literacy (willingness, collective activities, the authority of knowledge, users as producers, checking the reliability of knowledge and teaching media literacy). This 'discipline-based subject matter' was then to be transformed into 'a school subject'. However, the aims were not to be presented as knowledge and skills to be acquired but as a process which should be achieved. The pedagogical principles that would lead to these ideas of volition were developed.

Willingness. One of the starting points in 'the pedagogy for volition in media literacy' is the students' willingness to participate and be creative, often spontaneously, in their use of media. Likewise, a teacher's willingness is crucial. Adults

should be interest in the students' use of media. Children would like to play video and computer games with their parents even more although their parents may not have the time or be willing to do so (Ermi, Mäyrä & Heliö, 2005, p. 140).

Collective activities. The use of the web is no longer a solo project. Our participation has an audience, albeit hypothetical, and that creates shared processes in the web. Students should engage in collaborative processes in the web, if not anonymously with users they do not know, at least with classmates.

The authority of knowledge. A kind of epistemic characteristic relates to the authority of knowledge. Who has the power to decide what information is right and accurate. The nature and representation of knowledge must be negotiated during the process. The factors of reliability in the web must be considered. For example, it is important to realize that Wikipedia should not be understood as an encyclopedia and should not be used in the same way we use the Encyclopedia Britannica. Instead of writing in our essays 'Wikipedia defines X…', we should say 'In Wikipedia, an understanding about X is presented…'

Users as producers. The study materials for this kind of pedagogy are created by the students and other users of the web. Learner-created (or generated) content relates to the idea that in the Web 2.0 era, users are increasingly producing relevant content. The idea of learner-created content has been discussed more in the context of higher education (see Struck et al. n.d.) but is not unfamiliar in the school context either, especially regarding earlier pedagogical principles of cooperative and collaborative learning (cf. Hakkarainen et al., 1998).

Checking the reliability of knowledge. Teaching should include a critical approach towards the information presented in the web. To make this a natural procedure, technical as well as conceptual tools can be used in the classroom too. If a blog entry makes strong claims about a matter we are interested in, we should see what kind of 'neighbour blogosphere' the entry has. To what sources of information is the blog entry referring and who is referring or linking this entry. Also visual representations should be analysed.

Teaching media literacy. In practice, our implementation at one school in Helsinki metropolitan area included two lessons with Grade 4 students (10 year-olds) in the school's computer lab. First, each pair of students constructed a cmap (a digital concept map with CmapTools software) about their use, consumption and production of media. Then the students imported images, videos and hyperlinks to their cmaps. The whole process of concept map creation was saved for each pair with CmapTools recorder function to a cmap file on the server. This was followed by a comparison of the ways the cmaps were created and a discussion about the students' use, consumption and production of media. There was a joint class discussion about each cmap process.

What then is the relation between pedagogy for volition and a curriculum-directed TSL process in a school? Media education aims are present but they are constantly negotiating with subject-content learning as well as with methods of learning given the characteristics of volition. Pedagogy for volition in media literacy relates to current trends in the media literacy discussion. It relates to participatory media culture (see Jenkins, 2007) but operates in an institutional context. Tech-

nological development is often seen as a constant challenge for media education. However, media education in schools is about education, that is, teaching, studying and learning, not about professional media studies as a field of vocational education (as it is perceived in the UK). The teacher's interest in the students' media use and practices is in many situations the key issue. The role for the teacher then is to be a fellow learner and an adult at the same time.

Children bring change to schools like dirt on their boots, without noticing it. However, the boots are left outside the classroom. The important question is, how clean do we want the school to be. In the sense of meaning-making, the way media education is carried out, defines what it actually is. Often learning might appear obscure, or collateral. That makes the task in a school a more complex matter.

In the case study (Vesterinen, Kynäslahti & Tella, 2010), which will be discussed in more detail in chapter 4.4, the teacher talks about students in the computer lab, who need time on their own to undertake what can be referred to as volitional actions in their study process. The teacher states that it is problematic only to use a computer selectively for things that were in the lesson plan. A psychological view in the context of the TSL process is that volition refers to a situation where a student of her/his own will concentrates on a particular task rather than being distracted (Corno, 1993). The teacher's idea relates to this type of control of one's own actions during the study process. Her idea was to let the students get engaged in their task on the computer, which made it possible to support their agency and personal style of studying and learning. It also made it possible to avoid distractions, which would not be possible if students were too tied down to a chronological progression and mode of completing the task.

As mentioned above (p. 8), media literacy is not only about knowledge and skills—as the curriculum states—but also about attitudes and the ability to develop one's own approach to media. Education in general is about two negotiating principles: (1) a child is like a tree which needs to be taken care of so it survives when growing up and (2) children are pure and that purity must be fostered and not spoilt by an adults' world. An educator then is, at the same time, socializing a child to society and cultivating what is natural in her/him. In media education, this means (a) providing competences for the child's future career and life in society but also (b) encouraging the child's natural open-mindness, playfulness and creativity as well as protecting the child from danger.

3.2 Subject Didactics I

Subject didactics is here perceived as two main stopping points on the subject didactic dimension between content (i.e. media) and school pedagogy. Subject Didactics I connects with the traditional view on subject didactics where content is the starting point for planning one's teaching. In Finnish schools in particular, media education may be an aspect of art education, social studies, child protection or learning technologies. This contrasts with the situation in some countries where media education is defined as a subject of its own right, at least with older students (e.g. in Media Studies in the UK).

When word processing is taught on a computer or a movie project is conducted or students are publishing a school magazine, the primary goals are derived from media education. The question in Subject Didactics I is, how to organize the content of media education and teach children about media. The German concept of *Lehrplan* describes this quite well. The concept originated with the German scholar Johann Friedrich Herbart (1776-1841) and emphasized the role of the curriculum in dividing school subjects and weekly teaching hours (Malinen, 1985, p. 17). *Lehrplan* differs from John Dewey's (1859–1952) *Curriculum* approach in which education should mean the total development of the child.

The school curriculum in Finland has been influenced by the *Lehrplan* tradition (Malinen, 1985). So far the general aims for education (values, norms, world view, a good citizen, etc.) are set first and the aims for actual teaching (what to teach in each grade, what are the aims of different school subjects, etc.) are presented in a different section (POPS, 2004). In addition, Herbart used concepts such as *Erziehender Unterricht* and *Unterricht durch Erziehung* to refer to content outside the *Lehrplan* such as cross-curricular themes that must be covered in many school subjects and by many teachers (Kansanen, 2004). As described in the introduction (p. 7), the main goals of media education are presented in the cross-curricular theme of Media Skills and Communication (POPS, 2004) and therefore the current national core curriculum lacks a proper *Lehrplan* of media education.

3.3 School subject or not?

What makes a school subject? For example, the sequential significance of a school subject relates to the field of science behind the subject (Reid, 1999). The reasoning is then related to the knowledge and skills that the students need when they embark upon university studies. The centrality, universality and status relatedness of the school subjects also matter. In addition, a school subject can be characterized as academic or non-academic, theoretical or practical, and intellectual or physical (Tomperi, 2007, p. 112).

The question of a clear division according to school subject instead of a more holistic and integrated approach is often discussed when a new core curriculum for basic education is planned. One important question since the dawn of child-centered pedagogy has been whether school subjects and the domains behind them are considered as containers of knowledge with an absolute value or if they are considered as tools for seeking knowledge about the real world. (Blenkin & Kelly, 1981; as cited in Hytönen, 1997.) It can be argued that the role of media education concerns both knowledge and skills with some absolute value and tools for knowledge inquiry.

The TSL process in principle can be seen through two main questions, what and how (see above p. 1). According to Kansanen (2004, pp. 25–44) 'what' focuses on subject goals and other goals, such as cross-curricular matters and integration principles. In the core curriculum, the status of cross-curricular content is rather complex when compared to school subject content. In the Finnish school system, the

realization of cross-curricular themes is heavily dependent on the interests of the teachers.

Instead of being its own school subject, media literacy can be discussed as a component of some other existing school subject/s (Masterman, 1994, p. 60), as was the case with mass communication education in the Finnish Comprehensive School Curriculum of 1972 (Kupiainen, Sintonen & Suoranta, 2008, p. 10). A multifaceted syllabus of mass communication education was assigned to the school subjects of mother tongue, arts and citizenship education (*kansalaistaito*). The next curriculum change eased mass communication education out (Kansanen, 2004) and nowadays mass communication education is part of media education.

Scientific and societal development leads to changes in the curriculum. What is seen as an important issue will be added to the core curriculum in one way or another. Information technology (known as *ATK*, that is, Automatic Data Processing) used to have its own syllabus but later on, ICTs was conceived as something which can be and should be used in schools without having school subject status. (Kansanen, 2004, pp. 30–31.)

An illustration of Subject Didactics I can be found from the United Kingdom, where Media Studies (earlier Film Studies) has been an option for young people in the 14–19 age range since the 1970s. The syllabus for Media Studies was built on the key concepts of (Bazalgette, 1989; Buckingham, 1998):

- media agencies
- media categories
- media technologies
- media languages
- media audiences
- media representations

There have been different versions of these key concepts but the idea has stayed the same (cf. Buckingham, 1998; 2003). The approach has been influenced by the British Film Institute but the way the syllabus is presented makes it easy to apply to more current media too. The rapid development of ICTs forced policymakers to propose this new kind of approach. According to Buckingham (1998), the syllabus areas should not be seen as separate chunks nor should there be an extremely hierarchical approach. The history of media education in the UK has had phases of critical awareness, cultural studies (popular arts), demystification (screen education) and democratization (protecting children). More or less, the discussion about media education has always touched upon current societal questions. As Buckingham (1998, p. 37) states ‘if the media are routinely used as the scapegoat for these problems, media education frequently seems to be seen as the solution.’

In the event that media education achieves school subject status in Finland, the question of teacher qualifications would arise, too. One of the concerns in teacher education is the subject content knowledge of the teachers. To what extent does a teacher need subject content knowledge? Subject teaching is not necessarily poor if a teacher did not major in that subject (see Mitra & Dangwal, 2010). The benefit of

a teacher being more like a novice in an area of the curriculum relates to her/his having easier access to the students' level of thinking. A subject teacher might be more interested in the theoretical level of the subject whereas the students might be more interested in practical examples in studying.

However, in terms of subject didactic it is important that the teacher has walked the path along which s/he is guiding others. In an out of school context, a national level athlete, for example, can lead others to the same level at which s/he has performed but s/he does not necessarily have what it takes to lead others to international level. In my own experience of practising ashtanga yoga, it seems interesting that the 'curriculum' has stayed the same for a long time. This has shifted the emphasis from 'what to do' more towards 'how to do' the yoga practice. The same *asanas* (body positions) can be learnt in many ways and everyone can find, with the help of a yoga teacher, a way that fits her/his own body.

To summarize, three options for media education appearing in the curriculum were discussed here: a school subject in its own right, part of some existing school subject/s or a cross-curricular theme as in the current National Core Curriculum for Basic Education (POPS, 2004). A fourth option would be not to include it in the curriculum at all.

4 Teaching, Studying and Learning with or through Media

When moving away from subject-like media education, that is, teaching, studying and learning with a clear focus on media, another kind of role should be discussed. In this conceptual analysis, subject didactic matters are then approached, instead of content, from the pedagogical end of the dimension. What aspects of media education are present when the TSL process is supported by the use of media?

The student's studying and learning with or through media emphasizes concepts such as medium and mediation. I argue that media education should include some of the educational media aspects, too, since ICTs are increasingly penetrating human functions, and many learning offerings in terms of the students' media literacy are present when technology and mediated communication is used in the TSL process.

Moreover, educational research has been influenced by the increased use of ICTs in every field of life. The implications of ICTs for research methods and settings should be considered, too. In this sense, the added value of ICTs is evident when the same application is first used by the students for studying and learning, then used by the teacher as a way to support students' development, and finally used by the researcher to advance research methods. Therefore, the support provided by using IHMC CmapTools digital concept mapping software for stimulated recall interviews is discussed as a research methodologic asset.

This lead us to the empirical case of a teacher called Sini whose practical reasoning was in the area of Subject Didactics II. Sini's students' study processes in the computer lab conclude our considerations related to teaching, studying and learning with or through media.

4.1 Subject Didactics II

When moving away from a content specific approach, different ways of integrating school subjects can be discussed. For example, in curriculum integration, the content is not divided between different school subjects at all (Aaltonen, 2003, p. 64). At the same time, in discussions about competence-based education, the emphasis has been on the inquiry and management of knowledge, instead of the acquisition of knowledge (Tynjälä, 2000). Even knowledge creation aspects are discussed (Hakkarainen, et al., 2004; Ruokamo & Tella, 2005).

At the level of Subject Didactics II, a basic challenge regarding media education is to understand how teachers operate in an area that rarely has dedicated lessons or other characteristics that would identify it as a school domain in its own right. A natural solution is to place media closer to general views of the TSL process, as *Mediendidaktik* (see Kansanen, 2009a, p. 31) implies. This approach to media education is known in Finland as 'the educational use of ICTs' or 'network-based education' (Tella, 1998).

Information and communication technologies (ICTs) as a concept is a construction of various backgrounds (see Tella, 2001, pp. 14–16). In Anglo-American literature the concept of technology is often used instead (Vahtivuori, 2001, 96). Automatic data processing (ADP) was one early starting point for conceptual development, together with IT (information technology) and CT (communication technology) which merged together in the late 1980s (Tella, 2001). Since then, ICTs have become a common research topic in educational research, while, at the same time, ICT applications and software have increasingly been used for teaching and research purposes. ICTs also relate to the concept of medium, which is connected with the use of media (in the plural).

As one focus in the socio-cultural domain, the concept of mediation has also become common (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996, pp. 192–193). Mediation can be seen on three levels. An individual has limited potential to perceive phenomena and therefore the process results only in a subjective interpretation of the phenomenon. In addition to this mediation of mind, the spoken language mediates meanings which are again interpreted by another individual (Vygotsky, 1986, translated and edited by Kozulin). Computer-mediated communication adds one more level, technology-related mediation. This third level opens salient views on the educational use of ICTs. According to Tella (2001, pp. 25–27), teaching, studying and learning is changing towards empowering mediation where the teacher delegates power over the study process to the student, who is responsible for her/his own learning (Tella & Mononen-Aaltonen, 2001, pp. 63–65).

In the Western world, some level of competence with computers is expected from every citizen. ICTs are increasingly becoming part of many areas and functions of schools, too. The use of ICTs has also become more and more a matter concerning the methods of teaching, studying and learning.

The starting point for Subject Didactics II is in school pedagogy (*Schulpädagogik*). Different school subjects appear as a variation of general principles of pedagogy (cf. Kansanen, 2009a, p. 32). What is taught does not alone define the TSL process of media education. In terms of critical media literacy it makes no real difference whether the (critical media literacy) aims are present in a science lesson or a history lesson. At a curriculum level these two disciplines naturally differ. Critical media literacy might also be more emphasized in the *Lehrplan* of one's mother tongue than for example in the *Lehrplan* of mathematics. That does not mean that media education would not touch mathematics, too. For example, educational media aspects, which will be discussed in relation to Subject Didactics II, are very relevant in studying and learning mathematics.

All in all and from the point of view of Subject Didactics II, one could say that Finnish school system currently supports an integrative (i.e. cross-curricular) curriculum approach to media education, instead of *Lehrplan* (see Malinen, 1985, pp. 39–44). The key question in Subject Didactics II is how the didactic TSL process and educational use of ICTs relate to each other.

4.2 ICTs in education as a value issue

The use of ICTs in education should not be seen without some connection to values although it might not have its own syllabus in the curriculum. Both old and new technologies are hardly value-neutral devices (Cuban, 2001, pp. 164–165). According to Kupiainen (2005), the technology used in education also defines the content of learning, the shape of the study process and even world views. The extensive use of digital technology in education promotes a technical world view whereas traditional classroom learning relies on its own techniques (Kupiainen, 2005, p. 66). Also the procurement of technology can be seen as a rather multifaceted issue in schools (Wideroos, Pekkola & Limnell, 2011, pp. 251–254). The idea that users would have a key role in planning their ICT use is in many ways still ongoing.

In Finland, one special feature of media education is that there has been a close connection between media literacy questions and the educational use of ICTs. The first professorship of media education in Finland (at the University of Helsinki) was defined in the context of information society development and educational research (Tella, Mononen-Aaltonen & Kynäslahti, 1998, p. 8; Vesterinen et al., 2006, p. 149).

In the 1990s, media education was connected to the information society development of Finland (Kupiainen, Sintonen & Suoranta, 2008, p. 15). An important question was then to equip schools with sufficient technological devices and Internet connections. Media education had a role in defining a sensible pedagogical approach for teachers' use of ICTs (see Tella, Mononen-Aaltonen & Kynäslahti, 1998, p. 8).

During the 1990s, the relationship between information society development and media education was not a simple one (see Kupiainen, Sintonen & Suoranta, 2008, p. 15). If the beginning of media education is attributed to Leavis and Thompson's book *Culture and Environment: The Training of Critical Awareness* (1933, as cited in Masterman, 1985), one could say that the tail was wagging the dog, as media education was harnessed to provide support for the economic growth of the nation.

According to Simola (1998), instead of a value-rational orientation, Finland chose a goal rationalized curriculum, that is, measurable and exact objectives for students' behaviour were deduced from the general aims. At the same time, pedagogical views were separated from the social, cultural and institutional aspects of schools. (Simola, 1998, pp. 740–741.)

However, social values define school teaching in many ways. One practical form of this is that the society provides resources for teachers. In this light, a rapid re-equipment of schools and increased in-service training in ICTs mediated techni-

cal values to schools. Technology plays an essential role in the way we see ourselves and the world (Kupiainen, 2005, p. 67). In other words, schools should elaborate more when ICTs are basic tools like pen and paper, when ICTs is part of *Lehrplan* and when ICTs in part defines how we conceive the subject matter that we are studying and learning.

The challenge here is the speed of technological development. The evaluation of new tools is difficult in a short timeframe. Media education should operate in this field too. Although a technological device may be familiar to students, a teacher should understand something about the effects it may have in the conceptualization and meaning making related to the content that is mediated through the device.

Generally, a critical approach relates to the conciousness of society and history exists only through individuals' and groups' actions. Who uses power, for what purposes and in what ways are relevant questions in relation to the area of media education, too. (Suoranta, 2003, p. 163.) In the light of this conceptual analysis, the knowledge-based economy demands schools to solve problems such as a nation's competitiveness in the global economy. The more (ICT-)competent workers, the more competitive the nation. Therefore, media education should weigh the relationship between economic and other values.

4.3 Settings for conducting research in media education

Until now, theoretical considerations have been presented but now I will move on to defending the claims in this dissertation with the empirical cases that produced the main research data for the dissertation (Vesterinen, Kynäslahti & Tella, 2010). Since in Subject Didactics II the focus related to media is on the contextual and methodological side of the TSL process, I will now examine media education from the point of view of conducting research in the school settings for media education.

As part of the dissertation, research methods received special attention (see Vesterinen, Toom & Patrikainen, 2010). We focused on the use of the stimulated recall (STR) method and the support provided by using IHMC CmapTools digital concept mapping software (see http://cmaptools.com/). Bloom (1953) defines the STR method as follows:

> The basic idea underlying the method of stimulated recall is that the subject may be enabled to relive an original situation with vividness and accuracy if he is presented with a large number of the cues or stimuli which occurred during the original situation. (Bloom, 1953, p. 161)

In research on teaching, the STR method was used for the first time in 1974 at the Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, and the focus of the study was the content of the teacher's interactive thought processes (see Clark & Peterson, 1981; Peterson & Clark, 1978). In the reseach cases of this dissertation (see Vesterinen, Kynäslahti & Tella, 2010), the STR method was used to understand how teachers justified their decisions in the area of media education. Things happen sometimes without proper planning, yet for the purpose of media education one has to find a meaningful solution to the situation. Research on this type of

classroom situation can be difficult. When media education settings include ICTs and online activities, it is even more challenging to investigate the situation.

The practical reasoning of two teachers was studied in various settings of the teachers' media education projects. In the computer lab environment, the STR method was applied to research on the teachers' reasoning. Instead of simple video recording stimuli, the recordings from the students' use of CmapTools concept mapping software were also used as a prompt for the stimulated recall interview. CmapTools software was employed on three levels of the research setting: (1) the students used it for studying, (2) the teacher was able to follow afterwards how the students' concept mapping processes went and (3) the researcher gathered more accurate data since it was very easy to focus on a very important aspect of TSL process, namely, the students' study processes, in the STR interviews.

Similar data-gathering settings have been used earlier by Järvelä (1996). In her doctoral dissertation, one research case involved stimulated recall interviews with videotapes showing both classroom interaction and students' computer screens. The differences in research methodology compared to mine appear in the data analysis where my focus remained on the micro level with a clear focus on a few selected situations instead of Järvelä's (1996, pp. 36–37) larger qualitative analysis on the number of episodes.

In terms of the method of data gathering used here, the most crucial finding was that when a video recording is the only prompt material in the interview situation, the interview discussion focused more on the teacher's performance during the lesson. When a video recording is used together with the students' concept map recordings, the interview discussion and teacher's reasoning focused more on the students' learning processes (Vesterinen, Toom & Patrikainen, 2010).

In practice, a researcher using a stimulated recall interview with video and concept maps should keep the following things in mind:

- The video recording of the lesson gives a good overview of classroom situations but does not necessarily highlight the students' learning processes.
- Where students are using ICTs, there is special screenshot software for capturing all the events on the computer screens. However, integrating that data into the interview situation might need quite a lot of data processing on the computer before the data are in a sensible format for stimulated recall purposes.
- When the software has a playback or recorder function, as in CmapTools software, the process is very easy to recall by opening the file saved by the student and playing the recorded steps of the process. With the recorder function, both interviewer and interviewee can 'play', 'pause' or navigate to particular steps in the recording using the 'back' and 'forward' buttons.
- The actual interplay between video and concept map recordings takes place as 'diving' into a student's study process. The concept map recordings are used to get closer to the student's learning when the student is on the video or the teacher is recalling something from the lesson related to that student. (Vesterinen, Toom & Patrikainen, 2010)

The present approach is applicable not only to research but also on a practical level to development of teaching. The opportunity to return to phases of the students' study process can help the teacher facilitate future teaching, studying and learning methods in the class. Research on teacher reasoning can also be advanced through a greater awareness of the connection between students' learning and teacher actions. In data-gathering, this can be achieved by the use of ICTs, not only for recalling the outcomes but also the way the outcomes were achieved.

Instead of some 'ideal media education'—which is discussed widely in the research literature—media educational situations should be observed more as something else, something that is actually happening during ordinary school days. For this purpose it was sensible to organize this research as described above.

4.4 Study processes in media education

The research cases, where the stimulated recall method was used, focused on the practical reasoning of two teachers (see Vesterinen, Kynäslahti & Tella, 2010). The dilemmas that the teachers acknowledged in the stimulated recall interviews appeared in two domains: dilemmas related to the students' study processes and moral dilemmas. The dilemmas related to students' study processes were something that one of the teachers, Sini (female; 12 years of teaching experience), emphasized in her practical reasoning.

Practical reasoning takes place when an individual faces a dilemma and justifies the action s/he has taken. It differs from theoretical reasons, which can be described as reasons for believing, and in some sense points towards the truth. (Audi, 1991.) Fenstermacher and Richardson (1993) have applied the reasoning of actions to teacher thinking research. For us, practical reasoning was a way to isolate the kind of propositional understanding the teachers had about what they were doing in the classroom in terms of media education.

The analysis of the stimulated recall data started with clarifying the teachers' foci on the media educational situations and practical reasoning. Next the quality or structure of the practical arguments was analysed through four kinds of premises: empirical, situational, stipulative and value premises. Finally, the content of the practical arguments was reflected in the structural analysis (of the premises).

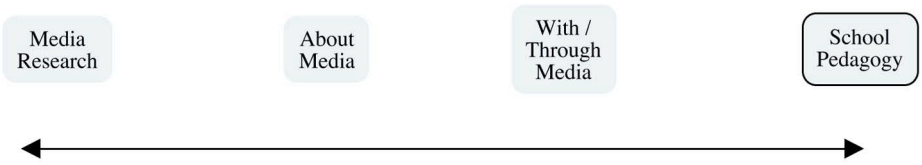
One example of Sini's practical reasoning concerned the situation in the computer lab and her thinking as to whether she should guide the students individually or teach the whole class. Another dilemma was about students' agency in relation to the space and tools for studying and learning. These two examples (for more, see Vesterinen, Kynäslahti & Tella, 2010) show that several factors are important in the TSL process.

Empirical premises were common in Sini's practical arguments, which means that after the lesson Sini considered the facts she had encountered during the lesson but also some situational and contextual aspects affecting the way she had promoted the study processes of her students. A value premise regarding self-regulated learning summed up quite well what type of study processes Sini aimed for in the computer lab. Self-regulated learning constitutes a guideline for Sini's media edu-

cational activities in the computer lab and in these kinds of situations. Students' individual needs and self-regulated learning have also been regarded as salient characteristics of the use of ICTs in school (Smeets, 2005).

Sini's practical argument has empirical premises that appear to relate to an individual's speed and progress in carrying out certain tasks. When working on their computer task, the students are not forced to operate at the same speed and self-regulated learning is supported. Self-regulated learning can be defined as a self-directed process through which students transform their mental abilities into task-related academic skills (Zimmerman, 2001, p. 1). Through the students' volition and uncompelled actions whilst using the computers, the teacher can engage students in their learning tasks.

5 School Pedagogy



The final stop in our journey through the subject didactic dimension of media education is school pedagogy. According to Suoranta (2003), media education has a mission in the school curriculum and school pedagogy. Media education should operate as a means to develop school pedagogy by preparing the way for studying and learning together and from each other (Suoranta, 2003, p. 160). The relationship between school pedagogy and media education is essential, as the previous chapter showed.

According to Heinonen (1989), school reality is about different kinds of facts. There is a difference between 'harsh facts' and 'institutional facts'. Institutional facts necessitate, for example, the existance of scientific institutions whereas harsh facts are based on firsthand observation and minimal interpretation. Whereas psychology examines individuals in terms of harsh facts, sociology is interested in the institutional aspects. (Heinonen, 1989, 46–47.) Systematic study of education should cover both types of facts.

School pedagogy is interested in the broader context of teaching, studying and learning, which includes giving attention to neighbouring sciences such as social studies and politics. The TSL process can then be researched in its wider social context but still in its institutional setting (Kansanen, 2009a, p. 35). It has a communal emphasis, too (Heinonen, 1989, p. 147). Hence, school pedagogy is closer to the Anglo-American conception of a curriculum than the German *Lehrplan* (Kansanen, 1989, p. 18).

5.1 General aspects of the teaching–studying–learning process

The conceptual analysis carried out throughout this PhD summary concludes with the general aspects of teaching, studying and learning. Across school education there are general questions related to methods of teaching, studying and learning. The idea behind the subject didactic dimension of media education is to acknowledge the possibility of approaching subject didactics also from general views of the TSL process towards content issues. Many issues in media education connect with the question of how the teaching, studying and learning of different content (subjects) are carried out. I argue that in many cases media literacy issues are closer to general pedagogy than subject-specific pedagogy since these subject educational functions penetrate the whole of society (cf. Kansanen, 2009a, p. 32).

A teacher can have an identity as a media teacher, as appears to be the case in the UK where 14 year-olds can start Media Studies in school, and media education

at lower levels can be seen as preparing for the vocational strand of Media Studies. However, in Finland and in primary education especially, teacher identity is built on pedagogical thinking (Kansanen et al., 2000) which also relates to university-level teacher education (master's degree in educational sciences), which even primary school teachers are required to have (see Eurydice, 2007, p. 15). That leads on to the view that primary school teachers as content-generalists instead of content-specialists (cf. Aaltonen, 2003, p. 66).

In addition, things like manners and bullying are issues that a teacher must be able to handle. In media education, these general educational questions can be seen as something that comes about through media, too, and, one way or another, this new substance must be handled by the teacher.

5.2 Moral matters that teacher faces in media education

In the Aristotelian tradition, practical reasoning is always moral reasoning since it is concerned with what we ought to do in particular situations (Pendlebury, 1990, p. 175). Still, whereas Sini was more likely to reason about her students' studying and learning and her teaching methods, the practical arguments by another teacher in this study, Visa (male; 15 years of teaching experience), were more clearly related to moral dilemmas in his teaching. In media education in particular, Visa's normal routines of classroom instruction were easily interrupted and he then had to consider certain principles for solving the dilemmas he encountered. The situations with moral dilemmas included more value premises but involved many empirical premises, too. Recent research has likewise suggested that both characteristics, rational (empirical premises) and intuitive (value premises), are present in a teacher's thinking (Kansanen et al., 2000).

Visa's interview data included themes such as (1) student emotions, (2) commerciality and copyright in school, and (3) inappropriate issues and materials. However, what was perceptible in Visa's practical reasoning of his actions was that he used strategies of handling moral dilemmas that are not always favoured by educationists. Husu (2002) concluded in his research that no single goal or method appeared successful in guiding teachers' judgements and action on its own. He calls it pedagogical uncertainty when a teacher's urgent obligations conflict with each other (Husu, 2002, p. 98). In two examples (see more, Vesterinen, Kynäslahti & Tella, 2010), Visa is, to some extent, trying to avoid a situation where a moral dilemma must be solved. However, Visa's avoidance of his moral dilemma was pedagogically well reasoned (cf. Oser, 1991). Practical arguments highlighted that the best interests of one child (cf. Tirri, 1999) must be weighed against the best interests of the group of children (as a social entity) or the best interests of the school.

Somewhat differing findings compared to earlier studies on moral dilemmas reflect the methods of data gathering and analysis. In the stimulated recall interviews, the magnitude of these dilemmas must be noticed. Visa's examples of moral dilemmas were about smaller issues than that of the dilemmas addressed in many other studies about teachers' moral dilemmas. Also in the interview, both the teacher and the researcher could select moral dilemmas from the video recording

during the interview. However, the results of this case study suggest that it is not easy to investigate the whole picture behind a teacher's actions in situations posing moral dilemmas.

Teacher reasoning in these media educational situations did not seem to fall easily into the common categories of teacher professionalism, such as subject knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. In educational research, media literacy, subject-specific matters and the moral issues involved in teaching are often research targets in their own right. However, they were all present in the media education that was studied here. The context and nature of media education differs for teachers from that in many other areas of teaching. For teachers, media education was also in connection with school policies, as media equipment, computers and learning platforms were provided by the school or the municipality, and, consequently, had not been chosen by the teachers themselves.

6 Discussion

The conceptual analysis of media education conducted here has suggested and discussed many ways that media education can be seen in the Finnish school system and the teaching–studying–learning (TSL) processes that take place in the school context. There are mainly three different ways that media education finds its place in Finnish school teaching and they relate to three aspects: the content of the TSL process, the methods of the TSL process and values as the foundation of the TSL process.

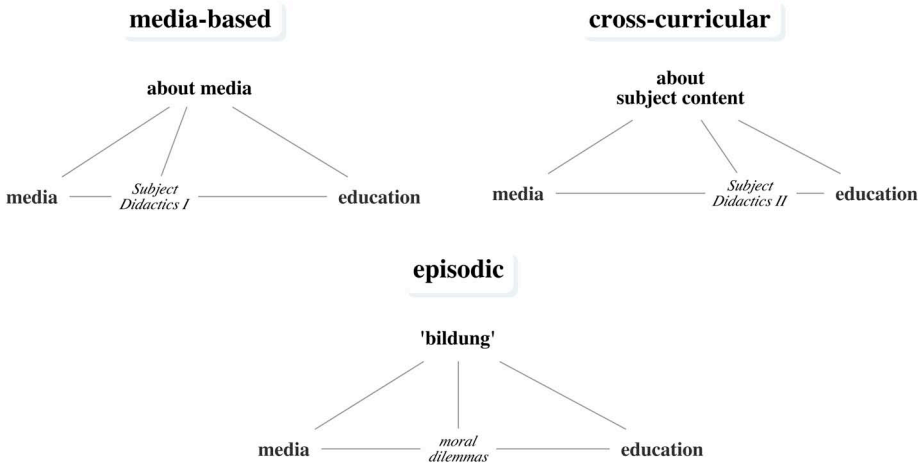


Figure 3. Three modes of media education in school.

As a conclusion, the three modes are presented (Figure 3):

1. Media-Based Media Education – The main focus of the TSL process is media literacy and learning about media (see Buckingham, 1998),
2. Cross-Curricular Media Education – The main focus of the TSL process is in the integration of subject content and media education (as in 'Media Skills and Communication', a cross-curricular theme of POPS, 2004) and
3. Episodic Media Education – Situations with media-related educational dilemmas, judgements and/or rules (often relates to the moral task of schools).

The subject didactic dimension of media education, which has guided us through this PhD summary, is the basis of this final theorizing too. The case studies conducted in this doctoral dissertation are linked to the modes of media education. Pedagogy for volition in media literacy (in chapter 3.1) was an example of *Media-Based Media Education.* Sini's case with its dilemmas related to the study processes of media education (in chapter 4.4) had an emphasis on *Cross-Curricular Me-*

dia Education. Visa's case (in chapter 5.2) again dealt with moral dilemmas which relate to *Episodic Media Education*.

The relationship between Media-Based Media Education and Cross-Curricular Media Education develops in an interesting way when it comes to the use of ICTs and reforming the whole school education. Many failures have happened in reforming schools through the use of technology (Salomon, 2002). ICTs should be reconsidered in the light of the media cultural meanings that these technologies bear. Only then will the contexts of children's media use and informal ways of learning find their place in studying and learning too. So far a big problem seems to be that using ICTs has not changed the study processes and strategies in schools fundamentally enough. In future the problem can be reframed so that although ICTs are used in a pedagogically meaningful way, the use of ICTs can be seen, like studying and learning as a whole, as separate from the out-of-school ways children informally learn in general and use ICTs. The aim cannot be to change the school solely in order to meet these informal settings of learning, but there must be a negotiative relationship between children's media cultural issues and studying and learning at school. It might be that this means that media education loses some strength in a *Lehrplan* sense, but it will more likely have stronger effects on any study process (i.e. teaching–studying) and study strategy (i.e. studying–learning) of students.

Regarding Episodic Media Education, school teaching is full of complexities (Lampert, 2001). Because many of the problems a teacher must address in order to get students to learn occur simultaneously, several different problems must be addressed by a single action. A teacher also acts in 'different time frames and at different levels of ideas with individuals, groups and the class to make each lesson coherent, to link one lesson to another, and to cover a curriculum, over the course of a year' (Lampert, 2001, p. 2). When these school-related issues also relate to children's out-of-school experiences, the dilemmas are even more complex (Buckingham, 2003, p. 176). One solution would be to harness children's out-of-school experiences for both classroom discussions about developing children's identities and the curricular content driven TSL processes.

Based on my doctoral dissertation, I present suggestions for media educators and policymakers as well as for school teachers:

1. As in many countries, the arguments highlighting the importance of media education in Finland have included advocating full school subject status for it. Although school subjects in Finland, too, have a more solid position in the school system than cross-curricular themes (Kansanen, 2004), I believe that giving school subject status to media education might not ameliorate the state of affairs.
2. It is crucial to realize that the relevance of media education can be validated and augmented through actual teaching, studying and learning situations in class. Media education does not need to follow the idea of many of the existing school subjects and be confined to one definition.
3. For example, if media education is driven by one interest group only, the potential of multi- or even transdisciplinary approaches is lost. There is the

risk that media education will lose its power to offer perspectives, starting points and rationales for other subjects as well as for the social and moral aspects of teaching.

4. Instead of media education occupying a corner of its own in the school curriculum, it should lead the wider change in the school teaching, studying and learning process.

In addition, I summarize three things from this doctoral dissertation that must be perceived in more contemporary and accurate ways. A vigorous shift is needed when it comes to (1) understanding the concept of media education, (2) the practice of media literacy and (3) the episodic nature of the media educational situations in the school context.

First, the concept of media education cannot be confined any longer to learning about media (cf. Buckingham, 2003, p. 4). Other media contextual aspects such as educational media must also be a central topic of media education. Otherwise the ICT use is left to technological examination only, and better study processes as well as study strategies may not be gained. The added value of media education research in the area of educational media is in adding aspects of people's non-institutional media use to each research paradigm.

Second, media literacy is not just measurable knowledge and skills that can be acquired in institutional education. In the era of Web 2.0 (or social media), media literacy is most of all about attitude, sometimes critical, towards learning and experiencing the world with and through media. Media literacy is a process of active involvement with a volition to produce, construct, share and categorize knowledge, opinions and experiences.

Third, media educational situations in school are manifold. Research on teaching is often characterized by the presentation of overly simplified truths about teacher actions and agency. The teacher alone does not influence all the things that happen in the classroom or the school, and even less so in the child's life outside school, although media are present everywhere. Also, teacher's actions should not only be studied as if they were cognitive and rational. The value of this study is to gain a wider insight into the levels and aspects that are involved in suddenly emerging but typical situations in school. The research on teaching should broaden the understanding of teaching to take account of the complexity of the circumstances as well as the thinking and reasoning involved.

On a practical level this means that any use of media in school provides opportunities, even demands, for Episodic Media Education. Since students constantly develop their ways of and reasons for using media, media literacy is no longer only about curriculum models and educational policies. Media educational situations, or episodes, are already shaping the status of media education, and we must realize that. Episodic Media Education can be seen in every situation where media, in various ways, is present.

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I

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II

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III

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IV

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